DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 296 430 EA 019 964

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TITLE School Experience Professional Development.
PUB DATE Sep 87
NOTE 28p.; Paper presented at the Annual Joint Meeting of the Australian College of Education and Australian Council for Educational Administration (Perth, Australia, September 27-October 2, 1987).
PUB TYPE Reports - Evaluative/Feasibility (142) -- Speeches/Conference Papers (150)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC02 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS *Adult Learning; Case Studies; Elementary Secondary Education; *Experiential Learning; Foreign Countries; *Inservice Education; Private Schools; *Professional Development; Public Schools; *Theory Practice Relationship
IDENTIFIERS *Australia; *Conceptual Frameworks

ABSTRACT

The masking of experience as the basis of learning and development is a major limitation of the school-based approach to inservice education. Neither case studies nor the teacher development literature supports the association of professional learning with a specific site, such as the school. On the contrary, locating the study and practice of teacher development within a broad theoretical framework such as experiential learning may be more productive than prosecuting it as a distinct entity. This discussion of school-based inservice education is based on 16 case studies of exemplary programs conducted in Queensland (Australia) government and nongovernment primary and secondary schools. The accounts are analyzed for design characteristics, knowledge construction, and ideological orientation. Two major concerns are identified: the level of cognitive complexity and the conservative orientation. After describing the experiential learning process in terms of four cycles (concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualization, and active experimentation), the paper discusses various professional development paradigms (functionalist, interpretive, radical humanist, and radical structuralist) and analyzes their shortcomings as disclosed in the case studies. Management processes are also analyzed and their conservative slant noted. Finally, successful design characteristics are listed and the lack of evaluation and recognition of teachers' goodwill as a primary professional development ingredient is discussed. Included are 2 figures, 44 references, and an appendix on performing a case study. (MLH)

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School Experience Professional Development

(Paper delivered at the ACE/ACEA Conference, Perth, September, 1987)

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This discussion of school based inservice education is based on 16 case accounts of programs conducted in Queensland government and non-government primary and secondary schools. The accounts are analysed for design characteristics, knowledge construction and ideological orientation. Two major concerns are identified: the level of cognitive complexity and the conservative orientation.

Limitations of School Based Approach

The masking of experience as the basis of learning and development is a major limitation of the school based approach to inservice education. Associating professional learning so closely with a specific site, in this instance the school, suggests practices and theory distinctive to that setting. Neither the case accounts nor the teacher development literature support this view. On the contrary, learning procedures described in the case accounts reflect the principles of adult learning theories (Kidd 1959, Brunner 1959, Knowles 1973, Corrigan 1980, Sprinthall and Thies-Sprinthall 1983), and the procedures identified by Joyce and Showers (1980) from a review of staff training in industry, commerce, agriculture and the armed forces. Locating the

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study and practice of teacher professional development within a broad theoretical framework such as experiential learning promises to be more productive than prosecuting it as a distinct entity.

The significant element common to teacher development activities is individual and collective experience both current and past, and, inside and outside the school. Therefore the learning group, distinct from location, is the most apposite organizing centre for teacher development activities. Taking the learning group's experience, rather than a location, as the organising centre for a professional development curriculum offers the following benefits:

1. people transforming their environment is the central focus of learning;
2. teacher development is based directly in mainstream theories of adult development and professional learning;
3. partitioning professional development by location, process and end, (e.g. school-institution, formal-informal, award non-award) is avoided; and,
4. over emphasising one approach to professional learning is less likely to occur.

Experiential professional development is an accurate description of school based teacher development activities since the learnings are based in the experiences and practice of groups of teachers. That the activities occur in and around schools is a secondary, not a primary, defining characteristic.

Method

The study involved compiling and analysing multiple case accounts of exemplary inservice programs. 'Case account' was defined as:

> a description of the intentions, actions, interactions and outcomes characteristic of the program (Logan 1987, 1.)

These programs were sought by contacting officers of both the regional and central Queensland Inservice Education Committees (QINSEC), notices in professional journals, letters to tertiary institutions and direct approaches to individuals. Three types of account were solicited: volunteered accounts submitted by participants in programs as a result of requests published through the QINSEC network and the professional press; formal accounts written as part of tertiary studies; and nominated accounts of selected programs commissioned by the project directors. Despite considerable advertising only nominated accounts were obtained. This biased the sample towards higher-profile, centrally sponsored programs.

Authors of the case accounts were directed through an An aide-memoire (Appendix) to structure their accounts around four aspects of the program: description of setting, description of events, perceptions of events and interpretation by participants and leaders. They were asked to include sufficient material for the reader to be able to make informed judgements about the worth of the program's intentions, its progress and its outcomes.

The accounts were subjected to four separate analyses. The first analysis (learning processes) used an adaptation of

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Kolb's (1984) model of experiential learning. Burrell and Morgan's (1979) model for analysing the sociological foundations of organisational theories provided the basis for the second analyses (orientation). The third analysis (management processes) was based on Warfield's (1976) model for societal problem solving. To examine patterns of interaction amongst people directly involved in the programs. Finally design characteristics were identified by inspection of the case accounts. Each analysis is discussed in turn.

Learning Process

Experiential learning describes learning resulting from direct transaction with the phenomenon under study (Keeton and Tate, 1978). Kolb (1984, 18) states:

> ... experiential learning is not a series of techniques to be applied in current practice but a program for profoundly re-creating our personal lives and social systems.

Lewin conceptualised experiential learning in terms of four cycles: concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualisation and active experimentation. Kolb extends this to include a grasping or prehension dimension (apprehension-comprehension) and a process dimension (extension-intention). Apprehension describes all the 'things... you know instantaneously without need for rational inquiry or analytical confirmation' (p.43). Comprehension is described as follows.

> Through comprehension we introduce order into what otherwise would be a seamless, unpredictable flow of apprehended sensations, but at the price of shaping (distorting) and forever changing that flow. Yet knowing through comprehension has other qualities that have made it primary in human

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society -namely, that comprehensions of experience can be communicated and thereby transcend time and space.

(Kolb 1984, 39-60).

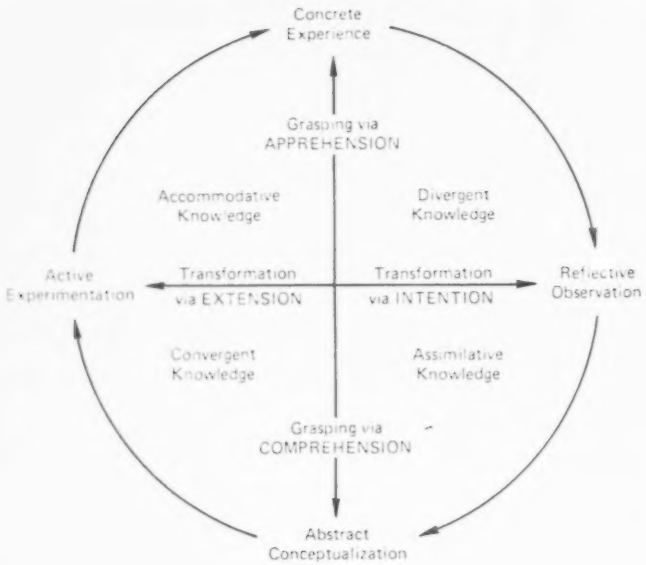

Figure 1: Structural Dimensions underlying the Process of Experimental Learning and the Resulting Knowledge Forms (Kolb 1984, 42).

Kolb (1984, 25-38) lists six characteristics of the experiential learning process.

1. Learning is best conceived as a process, not in terms of outcomes.
2. Learning is a continuous process grounded in experience.
3. The process of learning requires the resolution of conflicts between dialectically opposed modes of adaptation to the world.
4. Learning is an holistic adaptation to the world.
5. Learning involves transactions between the person and the environment.

6. Learning is the process of creating knowledge

These characteristics drawn from Dewey, Lewin and Piaget are not dissimilar to those forwarded by writers such as Corrigan, Bents and Howey, Knowles, Sprinthall and Thies-Sprinthall.

Kolb makes three tenets explicit. First the objective - subjective nature of experience in the learning process is emphasized. Second, he emphasises that the learning process revolves around the constant resolution, by individual and collective effort, of mutually opposite and conflicting orientations and processes. The merging of these through confronting the inherent conflict results in a higher order process that transcends and encompasses the opposites. Examples of opposites include active experimentation and reflection, concrete and vicarious experience, partitioning and integrating, impulse and reason, and involvement and detachment. Equal attention, according to Kolb, should be given to each stage of Lewin's learning cycle in order to avoid one process dominating the others and thereby limiting the type of resultant knowledge. Third, learning is viewed as a process of individuals and collectives generating and validating personal and social knowledge. Knowledge therefore is constantly subject to challenge, examination and revision.

Applying Kolb's notions to the case accounts brought out the following points. The majority of the programs emphasised concrete experience and active experimentation. Technical reflection was promoted through clinical supervision, coaching, analysis of plans, and discussion. Abstract conceptualisation tended to be linked to active

experimentation through extension, particularly in functionalist orientated programs. Accommodative knowledge appeared to dominate with imitation encouraged. A limited range of learning styles was catered for.

The principal aim of the functionalist programs in particular was to train participants to master a suite of recommended practices. The Rand Study (McLaughlin and Marsh 1978) documented the short term gains of skill specific training and concluded that such training by itself did not support staff learning and change because it fosters mechanistic applications when external suport or coercion is withdrawn. The evaluations of the Napa/Vacaville Project bear out the Rand findings (Stallings and Krasavage 1986, Stallings 1987).

Reflection is a key process in achieving balance amongst the types of knowledge resulting from experiential learning (Van Manen 1977; Schon 1983, 1987; Smyth 1986). Kemmis (1985, 40) summarises the notion of reflection in the following terms.

1. Reflection is not a purely 'internal' psychological process: it is action oriented and historically embedded.
2. Reflection is not a purely individual process: like language it is a social process.
3. Reflection serves human interests; it is a political process.
4. Reflection is shaped by ideology; in turn, it shapes ideology.
5. Reflection is a practice which expresses our power to reconstitute social life by the way we participate in

communication, decision-making and social action. Smyth (1986) drawing on Habermas and Van Manen describes three forms of reflection: technical, practical and critical. Technical reflection is characterised by the application of given knowledge (scientific, experiential, bureaucratic or folklore) to attain given ends. The ends themselves are unquestioned since the major preoccupation is the greatest economy, effectiveness and efficiency. Schooling as a social enterprise remains unproblematic. Concerns are limited to the technology of teaching. Practical reflection is focused on clarifying the assumptions that underlie practice. Actions are viewed as being linked inextricably to value commitments. Moral debate over the worth of current ends and means and those of alternatives, characterises this form of reflection. Critical reflection is directed towards emancipatory interests. It endorses

> ...the self-reflective stance of the 'practical' in explicating the aims and values of adopted moral positions in education and schooling. But it goes further. What is unique about critical reflection is its concern about the way in which educational goals and practices became systematically and ideologically distorted by structural forces and constraints at work in educational settings.
>
> (Smyth 1986, 17-18)

These three forms of reflection relate respectively to the functional, interpretivist and humanist ideologies of professional development described earlier. They also indicate levels of intellectual demand and cognitive complexity with technical reflection the simplest, and critical reflection the most complex.

Evidence in the case accounts on the form and extent of reflection is limited. But, the data indicate a predominance

of the technical form over the practical with critical reflection all but absent. The impression from the case accounts is that the majority of the activities were not particularly intellectually challenging. A low level of intellectual challenge, characteristic of much professional development (Lanier and Little 1986) has two serious outcomes. One is the reinforcement of the occult of the practical through regeneration and revalidation of imitative, recipe knowledge. The second is that teachers who expect and respect rigorous scholarly inquiry of professional problems become disillusioned and withdraw.

Orientation

Maxine Green (1986, 237) reminds us that 'To "do" philosophy is to pose questions about the nature of knowledge, to look critically at claims to knowledge, and to clarify assumptions underlying the conception of humans and society'. In the current instance the questions focus on the foundations of professional education. Morgan and Burrell (1979, 1-9) forward two dimensions to guide such investigations, labelled here as the educational and the sociological.

The educational dimension is based on the premis that assumptions about social reality, teachers, knowledge, learning and methods become extant in professional development programs.

Positions on these issues polarise around the concepts of existence and structure in the social world. The objectivists, following a physical science paradigm, seek 'to explain and predict what happens in the social world by

searching for regularities and causal relationships between its constant elements' (Burrell and Morgan 1979, 5). Subjectivists claim that since the social world has no inherent structure that searching for 'natural' regularities is a futile undertaking. Further, they deny the role of the objective observer maintaining that understanding others requires 'occupying the frame of reference of the participant in action'. The methods of investigation favoured range respectively from the nomothetic (objectivists) to the ideographic (subjectivists).

Change is the central concept in the sociological dimension. The ends of a continuum are labelled respectively 'maintenance of status quo' and 'radical change'. Maintenance of status quo supports development at current rates and in the current directions.

> It is....essentially concerned with the need for regulation in human affairs; the basic questions which it asks tend to focus upon the need to understand why society is maintained as an entity.
> (Burrell and Morgan 1979, 17)

Proponents of radical change on the other hand concentrate on finding explanations for conflict, processes of domination, inequitable distributions and limiting views of the future.

> It is....essentially concerned with man's emancipation from the structures which limit and stunt his potential for development. The basic questions which it asks focus upon the deprivation of man, both material and psychic.
> (Burrell and Morgan 1979, 17)

Intersecting the two dimensions produces four paradigms of professional development: functionalist, interpretivist, radical humanist, and radical structuralist.

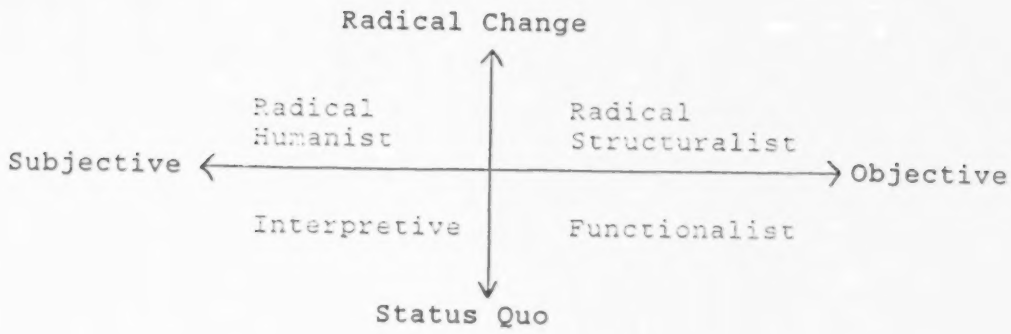

Figure 2: Paradigms of Professional Development Adapted From Burrell and Morgan 1979, 22.

Each paradigm shares common features with those on the adjacent horizontal and vertical axis. Therefore they should be viewed as contiguous but distinct entities - contiguous because of shared aspects but distinct since each presents a fundamentally different perspective on professional development.

Functionalist Paradigm: Theorists within this paradigm seek to provide rational explanations of social life through applications of natural science methods. Schools are viewed as hierarchical organisations in which authority is invested in designated position holders. These officers are held to use rational means to pursue agreed goals and are accountable for the activities of the institution.

Interpretive Paradigm: The interpretive eorists, like their functionalist counterparts, adopt a normative position. However they aim to understand the social world at the level of subjective experience, that is, within the frame of reference of the participants - those of the observer of the action. The school and classroom world is viewed as an emergent social process of individuals creating reality.

Radical Humanist Paradigm: Radical humanists are akin to the

interpretivists in focussing on the subjective. However the radical humanists emphasise the importance of empowerment, that is, overthrowing or transcending social limitations which inhibit the actualization of human potential.

> One of the most basic notions underlying the whole of this paradigm is that the consciousness of man is dominated by the ideological structures with which he interacts, and that these drive a cognitive wedge between himself and his true consciousness.
> (Burrell and Morgan 1979, 32)

Radical Structuralist Paradigm: Theorists in this paradigm are concerned also with radical change. Like the functionalists they concentrate on structural relationships but hold that fundamental conflicts which generate radical change through political and economic crises are endemic within society and provide the means for the emancipation of people from the structures which inhibit their self-fulfilment.

Analysing programs in terms of ideology:

1. Draws attention to the social and political aspects of teacher development.
2. Links teacher development theory and practice with social theory.
3. Promotes reflection on and justification of beliefs and values pertaining to both specific programs and professional development in general, and the relationship to schooling.

The case accounts fell into the functionalist, interpretivist or radical humanist paradigm. The eight functionalist programs shared the dominant concern of maintenance of the status quo through procedures developed and verified by 'scientific' method. Classrooms were held to

share common characteristics susceptible to common regulatory action. Rational knowledge provided the corpus of content and behaviours to be mastered for application with a high degree of fidelity. The end was essentially pragmatic, the learning processes behavioural. The role of objective observer, need satisfaction and quantitative processes were central. These programs, when sponsored by the government sector, typically had full time consultants, structured support networks and a wide field of operation.

The three programs in the interpretivist paradigm had the common theme of empowering participants to explore and to enact alternative courses of action. The dominant concern remained conservative, that is, the improvement of present practices to attain current ends. Knowledge was viewed as subjective and relativistic. Expert knowledge was to be considered but not held necessarily definitive and validation was against truth criteria arrived at by the group rather than those imposed externally. Each classroom and school world was viewed as idiosynchratic only to be known by 'getting inside the minds' of the teachers, students, parents, and other actors.

Only one program tended towards a radical humanist position. It aimed to radically change both the current practice and ends of schooling in respect to girls. It went beyond an interpretivist paradigm to examine the meta-theory questions about forces that influence one's reality constructs such as 'Why do I hold this view? How did I come to think this way?'

The conservative nature of school settings and teacher development illustrated in the case accounts is well documented elsewhere (Lortie 1975, Everhart 1984, Connell et al. 1982, Goodlad 1983, Connell 1985). Within this conservative ethos exhortations for teachers to be professional with the corollary of greater power to exercise self-direction, are not matched with commensurate enabling work conditions, terms of employment and recognition. The influence that teachers and principals exercise in their classrooms and schools remains in marked contrast to their relative powerlessness within the institution or the system. The message of the rhetoric is 'be a professional', but the message of the structures is 'be a technician'.

The issue of conservatism bred by powerlessness raises two questions for debate. To what degree is it in the interest of governments to support professional education over professional socialization? To what degree is the profession prepared to exchange security for self-direction?

Management Processes

This section discusses the actors and their patterns of interactions. Three categories of actors were identified: mentors, doers and stakeholders. Mentors have the formal and/or informal authority to underwrite a venture. Doers are people who act to influence the course of action. Their intentions may be either to promote the current trends, to maintain the status quo, or to reinstitute previous practice. Stakeholders are all the people effected by efforts to transform the setting. The actors are linked through three

processes: exploring, sponsoring and managing (Warfield 1976).

The importance of mentors to sponsor programs is emphasised in the accounts. Sponsorship was practised in a variety of ways including allocation of funds, materials and time; acknowledgement and praise; and participation and displays of interest (McEvoy, 1987). However, mentors are restricted to limited domains of influence. For example, centrally initiated and managed programs required mentors at three levels: system, region and school. Sponsorship at system or regional level alone did not guarantee acceptance of a recommended practice in schools even where it promoted participation. Schools and sections within them, exercise considerable independence. Therefore constant attention was given by doers to negotiation in order to establish 'couplings' with mentors within target groups.

In the couplings between schools and external consultants the principal appeared to be a desirable but not essential mentor. However, a mentor in the administrative staff was essential. One implication is that the current focus on the role of the principal in school development might well be broadened to include all senior staff especially subject masters.

Doers are critical to exploring and managing, especially to gaining mentors (the politics of teacher development). Five main points come through the accounts. They apply equally to designated, elected or emergent doers irrespective of title and location (e.g. consultants, school administrators, peer leaders, in-school advisors) and echo the

professional development literature (e.g. Logan, Carss and Dore 1979; Howey, Yarger and Joyce 1978; Fullan 1982, 1985; Schlechty and Whitford 1983; Firth and Schoenheit 1987.)

1. Competent leaders respected by their colleagues are essential at each location where activity is carried out (e.g. head office, regional office, school, section).
2. Affective characteristics of doers such as enthusiasm, patience and approachability, are equally important as technical competence in determining their effectiveness.
3. Structured support for cross-fertilisation and analysis of ideas, practices, enthusiasm and beliefs is essential.
4. Doers need training and support networks.
5. Means by which people can identify and act in concert with like-minded others, generate action and help to identify and motivate doers.

Stakeholders (all the people effected by a program) were not the focus of any particular account. The programs reported concentrated on single audiences, mainly teachers. Managing is concerned with making the most efficient use of resources to translate ideas into action. Managing activities described in the programs included:

1. Gaining mentors in various locations and groups as required by the program.
2. Developing detailed but flexible plans to guide activity at a level ranging from system to classroom for a variety of audiences.
3. Developing written submissions to gain or to maintain resource allocation.
4. Communicating clearly and sensitively expectations

and achievements, both of individuals and groups.

5. Co ordinating.
6. Increasing people's access to resources, particularly materials and colleagues.
7. Maintaining enthusiasm and supervision to ensure task completion.

Consideration of direct funding received scant attention in these programs because the costs appear to have been met by employing authorities, special program votes or absorbed into general school maintenance.

Finally, low profile management appeared to characterise every program. Negotiation, collegiality, 'voluntary' participation, respect for the others' beliefs, knowledge and skills, participative decision taking, and care for others were common features. The school administration was not always like-minded.

The actual actions of mentors and doers in sponsoring and managing are shadowy in the case accounts. Aspects of their behaviours are clear enough however to suggest a complex political play peculiar to each program.

Gaining and retaining sponsorship is an essential requisite for doers. Quite complex negotiations were undertaken to establish management structures in each instance ranging from co-operation to collaboration. (Following Hord (1987) co-operation is taken to be 'top down', collaboration to be collegial.) Functionalist programs favoured co-operation while interpretivist and humanist programs tended to be collaborative. Involvement in planning did not appear to be a dominant determinant of

teacher commitment. Nor did it guarantee sponsorship from school administrators. In keeping with the findings of Crandall (1983) in some instances commitment followed practice, in others commitment preceded practice as noted by writers such as McLaughlin and Marsh (1978) and Fullan (1982).

There was insufficient evidence to address questions on the process of developing collaboration from co-operation, and the relationship between form of management and the durability and generalizability of recommended practices. However, the accounts support the thesis that credible, functionalist programs are not disadvantaged necessarily by co-operative management (Fullan 1985) at least in the initial stages. Collaboration however is probably a requisite for programs which emphasise individual and collective knowledge construction through collegial reflection.

Three features were common in the case accounts independent of the form of management. Continued sponsorship and commitment was directly dependent on the immediate success in practice of recommended approaches or tactics. Involvement was influenced by the mentors' affective, technical and material sponsorship. A school as part of an ecological system (Goodlad 1987) is dependent on intra-systemic politics beyond its boundaries.

Design Characteristics

Characteristics which recurred (but not universally) in a number of programs included: an extensive time and intensive labour commitment; concern with the practical; interaction

between course work and classroom learning; conferencing based on observation of practice; commitment commensurate with success; focus on the utility of the advocated tactic rather than on an individual's competence; trained leaders and content specialists were concerned with both affective and technical support; prolonged access to structured and demand support; negotiated understanding of responsibilities and the means to meet them; sponsorship at each site by a member of the administration; and, task focused collegial learning groups. These are well documented features of successful programs (e.g. Joyce 1976; Joyce and Showers 1980; Fullan, Miles and Taylor 1980; Fullan 1982, 1985).

Motives for participating were to meet a current or projected crisis, to remedy a teaching problem or concern, commitment to a cause, coercion (real or imagined) from administration or colleagues, and 'political' advantage to one's career.

With one exception, apart from the commissioned reports on two programs, evaluation appears to have been **ad hoc** with minimal attention given to disciplined documentation and interpretation. The use made of the commissioned reports for program improvement, as distinct from program justification, was not clear. For the one program in which a model of evaluation was agreed upon by all participants, expectations were clarified, indicators of achievement negotiated, and the 'rules of evidence', (its collection and interpretation) agreed to.

Neglect of evaluation echoes Henderson (1979), Fox (1980) and Kaplan (1980). Yet evaluation warrants attention

both for professional and pragmatic reasons. Professionally, the application of more refined and disciplined evaluation procedures promote personal growth (formative) and a means to improve programs (summative). Pragmatically, sponsorship in the future will be more dependent on the capacity to demonstrate the extent and worth of program outcomes in ways credible to authorities. Funding once again might be the mother of a priority, in this case training in evaluation.

In general successful programs seemed to acknowledge that inservice education is an adult curriculum activity with learning (rather than teaching) as the major organizing principle. Issues such as source of initiation, time requirement, location of the course, governance, training or education emphasis, conducted in employer's or teacher's time, appeared to be of minor importance if programs were perceived by teachers to be coherent, relevant, practical and conducted by credible, concerned people.

The accounts also underline one of the better known facts about professional development activities (Berman and McLaughlin 1978, 1979; Fullan 1982, 1985; Goodlad 1987). Significant change demands significant resources - time, materials, venues, funds. Of all the resources identified 'teacher goodwill' was probably the most important and the least recognised.

Conclusion

The case accounts record aspects of teacher development activity that are encouraging. They also raise issues that warrant close inspection. Key issues are the level of

cognitive complexity characterising the examination of schooling practices, and the conservative orientation of inservice education. The resolution of both these issues revolves around the ends of professional education being dominant over those of professional socialisation in teacher development activities irrespective of their location, and in the profession having sufficient nerve to revise the conditions of work in schools in order to promote teachers as learning professionals.

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Appendix

Aide-Memoire

ACCOUNT OF SCHOOL FOCUSSED INSET
WRITING GUIDE TO THE ACCOUNT OF THE PROGRAM

The following is not a recipe. It is a guide to help you to focus on some points that you might include in your account of the program. We would like you however to follow the general order of:

1. Description of the setting
2. Description of the events
3. Perceptions of the events
4. Interpretation.

The questions listed below under each heading are not exhaustive, they are intended to be an 'aide-memoire' to help you recall aspects, thoughts, actions, intentions, motives, etc., perceived and felt during the program. We suggest one way to proceed is to:

1. read quickly through the questions under a heading several times and then write down what comes to mind,
2. repeat this for each heading.

Another way is to:

1. read quickly through the questions and made additions,
2. read your list for each section several times and then write what comes to mind,
3. repeat for each section.

Either way provides you with the base material which you will add to and delete from as you move through drafts to the final copy. Yet another way is that special modus operandi

that you've developed over the years and works best for you.

1. Description of the Setting

Circumstances from which the activity(ies) arose

(a) Motives for the activity.

(b) The problem/issue/need.

(c) Initial planning.

(d) Initial encourages/discourages.

(e) Initial expectations held by various people.

(f) Reasons for the program being accepted.

2. Description of What Happened

What occured during the program.

(a) Who organized/conducted/attended/evaluated the activities?

(b) How were people informed about the activity initially and during the running of it?

(c) What were people expected to do? - before sessions? at sessions? between sessions?

(d) Who organized the activities e.g. arranged for finance, time, release, equipment, etc. - i.e. took care of the nuts and bolts?

(e) What special resources were used - people on staff, people from other schools or central/regional support services, general community; special equipment?

(f) Where did the activities take place - classrooms, corridors, staff rooms, teacher centres, hotels etc, etc?

(g) When did the activities occur - time of day? time

of year? Why these times?

3. Perceptions of What Happened How you and others saw what happened.

   (a) How did it go? What worked? What didn't work? Why?

   (b) Who were the people that helped most? least? (c) Who benefitted most? least?

   (d) What comments were made about sessions? activities? the program? etc?

   (e) Was it worthwhile? Would you do it again?

4. Interpretation

Why did it turn out the way it did and how might it have been different.

   (a) How was the program different (if at all) from what you originally envisaged?

   (b) Why was the program altered?

   (c) Did the alteration add or detract?

   (d) What changes would you recommend for a similar program?

   (e) What were the benefits to the school?

   (f) What general advice would you give to colleagues about school focussed inservice education?